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FIRE PREVENTION AND FIRE FIGHTING ON THE FARM

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Contribution from the Office of Farm Management

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MILLIONS of dollars' worth of agricultural wealth is destroyed by fire in the United States each year. At normal prices and with an average crop, it would take the greater part of the potato crop of the country to offset all that is lost annually through fires on farms.

This is a dead loss to the Nation—for the fact that most individual losers are partially reimbursed through insurance does not in the least reduce the drain on our national resources—and it is a loss that is largely preventable.

This bulletin suggests to farmers some easy ways in which this great waste of our national wealth may be reduced.

FIRE PREVENTION AND FIRE FIGHTING ON THE FARM.

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MOST FIRES PREVENTABLE.

ORGANIZED fire prevention long ago became a science in our cities, but there is still a tendency for many farmers to consider a destructive fire as an act of Providence and loss from fire as unavoidable. Yet a comparatively small amount of time intelli-



FIG. 1.—A fire on the farm usually makes a clean sweep.

gently applied by the individual farmers in the study of conditions which are likely to cause fire, and of money spent in placing simple and inexpensive fire-fighting equipment would eliminate a large percentage of this waste.

NOTE—Credit is given to Mr. V. N. Valgren, Investigator in agricultural insurance of the Bureau of Markets, for suggestions concerning this bulletin.

Practically every fire, except those of incendiary origin, is preventable—some carelessness or neglect is usually responsible.

The object of this bulletin is to interest the reader in fire prevention on his own premises, to induce him to investigate conditions which exist there and bring him to realize that he would be personally responsible for any fire that might occur, and to urge that he take immediate action to eliminate all unnecessary fire hazards from his premises, at the same time providing such fire-fighting facilities as conditions warrant. Suggestions are offered which will enable the farmer to study his fire problem intelligently and combine economy and efficiency in the protection of his property.

The farmer should study his buildings and their contents from the point of view of the fire inspector of the city, whose sole business is to see all the things that can be done to improve conditions so that fire can not easily start, and to determine the best ways of fighting any fires that may start. He should remember that any preventive or protective measures which he may take are for his own benefit, and that protection sufficient to prevent a fire is cheap as compared with the loss entailed by the average farm fire. Every building or set of buildings has certain points which are more susceptible to fires than others, but adequate protection must be provided for the entire premises before the owner can be sure that some weakness due to oversight or neglect will not neutralize the good effect of all the work previously done.

Most farmers carry fire insurance on their buildings and contents sufficient partly to repay them for any losses that may occur; but this insurance is paid from premiums which are nothing more than a tax collected from the policyholders for this purpose. The loss occasioned by a serious fire is such that very few people can afford to be without fire insurance, but attention to the prevention of fire would result in reducing the number of fires, and, therefore, the rate of premiums necessary to cover the fire losses. This would be felt quickly in mutual companies which are owned and managed by the policyholders themselves and in which the premiums are fixed by the actual losses.

FIRE PREVENTION.

The common causes of fire are known to everyone, and there is no one who does not know how to put out a fire if the means are at hand. But there is a tendency for the average property owner to become exceedingly careless in his efforts toward fire prevention and extinction.

Some of the more common fire hazards found on nearly every farm are enumerated below. The idea is not to tell the reader something new, but to make him realize that he frequently tolerates conditions

which are likely to cause a destructive fire, and that he must exercise some reasonable precaution if he expects to do his share in reducing the fire bill of our Nation.

CARELESSNESS WITH MATCHES.

All matches are dangerous from a fire standpoint. The ordinary "parlor" matches take fire at a very low temperature and can be lighted in many ways. They sometimes fall to the floor unnoticed and are lighted by being stepped upon. When one is being scratched part of the flaming head may fly off into some inflammable material. Children are fond of playing with matches and do not realize the danger connected with them; even babies soon learn by imitation to strike them. Match holders should always be placed well out of reach of the younger members of the family. Many fires are started by matches carelessly thrown down while they are still in flame or before the stick has ceased to glow. At all places in the house where matches are usually struck a fireproof receptacle should be provided for the burned matches, and this should be emptied frequently. Smoking or striking matches in the barns or stables should never be allowed. Nor should hired hands or others be permitted to carry matches loose in their pockets. If the carrying of matches is necessary, insist upon the use of a good metal match safe; this will prevent single matches being pulled from the pocket accidentally.

The double-dipped matches which have come upon the market in recent years (those with heads of two colors) are much safer than the older kind, for they will not light except when scratched on the small tip, they are very unlikely to light when stepped upon, and the heads do not fly readily. But the least dangerous matches are those which will not light unless they are scratched upon the box which contains them. The manufacture and sale of single-dipped matches is recognized as undesirable by some States, which have laws forbidding it.

KEROSENE.

Kerosene is used on almost every farm in the country and has been responsible for many destructive fires. It requires quick and intelligent action to prevent an overturned lamp or lantern from setting fire to surrounding objects. Lamps with glass bodies, when overturned, frequently break and spill the oil. If lighted at the time, serious results might follow. Lamps with metal bodies are not subject to this hazard. Lamps and lanterns may explode if they are not handled carefully or if the oil gets too low in them. Some lanterns, as, for instance, switchmen's, are expressly designed to avoid danger when not handled carefully. The wick should always fit tightly. Enough vapor to produce an explosion may be generated

if a lamp or lantern is refilled while still hot. For the same reason refilling should always be done at a safe distance from a hot stove. Lamps should never be set on the floor or upon the edge of a table, box, or rickety stand. Electric lanterns, operating with one or two ordinary dry cells, such as are used on gasoline engines and automobiles, could very well take the place of many of the old kerosene lanterns in the country. These will not start fires even if handled in the most careless manner and are also much cleaner and more convenient, always ready for use, and not affected by wind or rain.

Small individual electric-lighting plants, designed particularly for farm use, can now be bought for from about \$150 up. There is absolutely no danger of fire from these outfits if the equipment and wiring are properly installed, and they not only eliminate the use and danger of kerosene lanterns and lamps but furnish a much better light, at the same time being cleaner, more convenient, and sanitary. A properly installed gas plant is also safer and superior to the kerosene lights, though not equal to an electric plant. In figuring the cost of installing modern lighting facilities in the home, due consideration should be given to the greater protection from fire which is entailed by such installation.

GASOLINE—IN COMMON USE AND VERY DANGEROUS.

With the advent of the automobile, the farm tractor, and the stationary gasoline engine, gasoline has become almost as common as kerosene on the farm. This is the most dangerous petroleum product in common use. Even at ordinary temperatures it gives off a very explosive vapor, and it burns more fiercely than kerosene. The only really safe place to keep the gasoline supply is in a tank buried underground, and it should never under any circumstances be kept inside any building where it may be necessary to take a kerosene or other open light or where a gasoline engine of any kind will be operated. If the container permits vapor to escape, a spark from the electrical equipment or a flame from the exhaust pipe of any gasoline engine may easily ignite it. *The vapor from a single pint will render the air in an ordinary sized room explosive.* It is heavier than air, and there may be a great deal of it near the ground or floor in the vicinity of a tank, while the odor would not be particularly noticeable to a person standing. For this reason it is especially hazardous to set a lantern on the ground or floor near a gasoline container of any kind, even out of doors, as the flame may follow the vapor from the lantern to the container. Open-flame lights should never be allowed in the garage or the building containing the farm tractor or gasoline engine, and such a building should never be heated by a stove. It is safer if the automobile and tractor are run outside before the tanks are filled, so that the vapor may

be carried away immediately, and the tank of a stationary gasoline engine should be filled only in daylight and while the engine is not in operation. Water, unless applied in very large quantities, has no effect on burning gasoline except to spread the fire, and this fact makes such fires all the more dangerous.

BURNING BRUSH OR RUBBISH—BONFIRES.

In order to get rid of undesirable brush or rubbish on the farm it is often desirable to burn it, and at times an outdoor fire is almost a necessity. Such a fire should be watched from the time it is kindled until the last ember is dead, since fires of this type are responsible for the destruction of many buildings, fences, forests, fields of grain, etc. A fire should never be built so big that it could not be scattered and extinguished in a few minutes if the wind should happen to become dangerously high, and it should never be left until after the embers have been scattered and there is no possibility of it again flaming up. If water is convenient the ashes should be well soaked as a final precaution. Many destructive fires have been caused by such fires which were thought to be burned out and dead, but which contained hot coals which the wind blew into flame and carried to near-by inflammable material. Children like to play around a fire, to throw things into it, or pull burning sticks from the flames. This should never be tolerated, as it is likely not only to spread the fire and cause the destruction of valuable property, but to set fire to the children's clothing and endanger human life as well. Where possible, rubbish should be burned in a brick furnace or in a metal container designed for the purpose. Metal containers having large openings around the side may be dangerous in that fire may easily get through the openings.

In some sections of the country the practice of burning off stubble fields and cornstalks before plowing is common, and the fire sometimes spreads to the fence line or to stacks of hay or straw or even into the farm buildings. This danger can be eliminated to a great extent by plowing a few furrows around the field before the fire is started.

Bonfires, Christmas trees lighted with candles, and Fourth of July celebrations where gunpowder is used belong in the same category with rubbish fires. Any fire kindled in an unaccustomed place is likely to be dangerous. Lighted candles may be dangerous, particularly in such places as barns, closets, and attics.

DEFECTIVE FLUES AND OVERHEATED STOVES.

Stoves, stovepipes, and chimneys, if improperly installed or carelessly used, always constitute a fire menace. Stoves should not be placed too close to papered walls or woodwork unless proper pro-

tection is provided for them. The floor near stoves or fireplaces, where exposed to heat or the dropping of hot coals, should also be covered with some noninflammable material.

Stoves and stovepipes should be put up solidly. In general, stovepipes should not pass through wooden partitions or through ceilings, and in case such installation can not be avoided tile insulators or other fireproof material should be placed around the pipe. Chimneys should be examined periodically for cracks. If cracks occur in a chimney they should be filled with plaster or cement at once, as fire often creeps through such cracks to the woodwork. Cracks that may be dangerous and that might not otherwise be found can be discovered by building a smudge in the stove and placing a board or wet sack over the chimney. Smoke will then be forced out of the cracks.

All chimneys should be cleaned regularly to remove the soot and any other inflammable material that may have got into them. This is best accomplished by means of pieces of metal (such as scrap tin), limbs of an evergreen tree, or a bundle of brush attached to a rope, chain, or wire, and worked up and down in the chimney from the top.

The door leading to the firebox of a stove should not be left open to check the draft, for live coals are likely to fall out on the floor, and the clothing of a person near the stove may be drawn into the fire. Suitable dampers should be provided in the pipe if the stove is not equipped with them. For the same reason open fireplaces should not be used unless provided with an effective screen to keep sparks and hot coals from flying out into the room. Stoves should always be of ample size for the space they are expected to heat, as if they are too small they are liable to be overheated (and the pipe at the same time) or filled so full of fuel that fire falls out on the floor when the door is opened.

FLYING SPARKS AND CINDERS.

Cinders from chimneys, locomotives, or steam traction engines often ignite dry wooden shingle roofs and start many fires in straw, stubble, and grass during dry seasons. Most States have laws requiring locomotives to carry spark arresters on their smokestacks, and all steam engines on the farm should be required to have them. When such engines are used in the stubble field or near dry grass or straw they should be watched to see that cinders from the stack or hot coals from the fire box do not start a serious fire. They should always be placed as far as possible from buildings, and preferably on the lee side.

From a fire protection standpoint it is unfortunate that nearly all farm buildings are covered by shingle roofs. A dry shingle roof is one of the most inflammable things imaginable, but on account of

their durability, light weight, and low cost shingles probably will continue to be used indefinitely as roofing for farm buildings. However, when a new building is being constructed or a new roof is being put on an old one it is at least worth while to consider the use of fireproof roofing. With the growing scarcity and high price of lumber fireproof substitutes for shingles are becoming more numerous and easily available.

When shingles are exposed to the weather for a short time they take on a rough, fuzzy appearance, due to the fibers on the surface becoming loosened. The sun from without and the heat from within the building combine to extract every trace of moisture from them. If a cinder or spark happens to strike the roof the roughened surface tends to hold it there, and it is likely to set the roof on fire before it goes out. One way of lessening this danger is to paint the roof. The paint smooths down the rough surface of the wood, making it much easier for cinders to roll off to the ground when they strike the roof; it prevents the shingles from warping and forming pockets for the cinders to lodge in, and if cinders do stick on the painted surface considerably more heat is required to ignite it than to fire the rough surface of the unpainted shingles. Dried paint is mostly metallic or mineral pigment from which the oil is all evaporated, and in itself is not inflammable. Painted roofs have the advantage of being more attractive than unpainted ones, though it is a mooted question as to whether oil paint lengthens the life of a shingle roof. Where buildings are frequently exposed to danger from flying sparks or cinders, some means should be employed to make the roofs reasonably safe from them.

SPONTANEOUS COMBUSTION.

Many destructive fires have been caused by the spontaneous ignition of hay, especially clover and alfalfa, both in mows and in stacks. The first cutting of alfalfa seems to be the most dangerous in this respect. If hay of this kind has rain or dew on it or if the stalks are not cured thoroughly when it is put up, the moisture will cause fermentation, which may produce sufficient heat to start a fire. The combustion always starts in a part of the mow or stack at some distance from the surface, but it can not continue long without oxygen from the outside, and it may cease without ever having come to the surface. Its presence can be detected by a peculiar sooty odor or by smoke irritating to the eyes. It may take place from a few days to several weeks after the hay is put up. There is little danger from this source if the hay is properly cured. Spontaneous combustion has been known to take place in damp fodder and straw, and bins of moist grain and seeds are also dangerous in this respect. Manure piles create a great deal of heat, but manure does not burn readily.

Cloths, waste, and sawdust saturated with organic oil of any kind are even more subject to spontaneous ignition than hay. Such oils unite with oxygen when exposed to the air, and heat is produced. If the oil is spread upon cloth or other material which ignites easily, and if the conditions are such that the heat is not radiated, the temperature may become so high that a flame will be produced. The accumulation of such materials should be guarded against.

Poorly Constructed Smokehouses Often Take Fire.

Smokehouses for curing the family supply of meat are especially dangerous if poorly constructed of wood. It is possible to construct a smokehouse out of stone, brick, or, preferably, concrete, at only a slight increase in cost over wood, that will be practically fireproof. Needless to say the smokehouse should be placed at some distance from the other buildings, and should be watched carefully while the meat is being smoked.

SPECIAL EQUIPMENT REQUIRING THE USE OF FIRE.

Incubators, brooders, feed-cookers, evaporators, and other equipment requiring the use of fire are found on many farms. Such equipment always constitutes a special risk. There is a great difference in the innate hazard of different types of these apparatus, and the first step in reducing the risk from them is to purchase only the best types and to make the place and manner of installation such as to involve the least danger. But wherever placed, constant care in operation is necessary to insure even comparative safety.

LIGHTNING RODS REDUCE THE DANGER FROM LIGHTNING.

The average annual property loss from lightning in the United States is about \$8,000,000, and by far the greatest part of this loss is in the rural districts. Lightning is an especially great hazard in those parts of the country where thunderstorms are frequent, and practically the only protection against it is the lightning rod. Many people hold the opinion that lightning rods do not protect a building at all, and that they actually increase the danger if they are not properly installed. But it is now definitely known that they afford *some* protection in almost every case, and if they are installed properly and intelligently they reduce the risk of loss from lightning to an almost negligible quantity. From such statistics as are available regarding damage from lightning in parts of the United States and Canada where thunderstorms are frequent, it has been found that properly installed rods reduce the probability of a barn being destroyed by lightning by something like 99 per cent, and of a house by as much as 80 or 90 per cent.

Directions for installing lightning rods are given in Farmers' Bulletin 842, Modern Methods of Protection Against Lightning, which may be obtained free from the Division of Publications, United States Department of Agriculture.

Farmers' mutual fire insurance companies in some instances take cognizance of the protection afforded by lightning rods and make substantial reductions on the premiums charged on rodded buildings, while others only insure buildings which are rodded in a manner satisfactory to them. Such reductions will soon pay for the cost of installation of the proper rods. In view of the fact that lightning is one of the greatest causes of fires in the rural districts, all companies which insure farm property against fire should make a considerable reduction of premiums in favor of buildings which are protected by a satisfactory system of lightning rods, and the owners of such buildings should be careful to select a company which grants such reductions.

FIRE PREVENTION IN THE ERECTION OF NEW BUILDINGS.

The fire hazard should be considered in the location and construction of all new buildings on the farm. Many groups of farm buildings are so located and constructed that any fire which might break out in one building would be almost sure to destroy the whole group. When a new building is to be erected it is worth while at least to consider placing it where it will be reasonably safe from fire starting in any other building and where it will not be a menace to other buildings. Concrete construction is being used on many farms, and it is especially desirable for smokehouses, incubator rooms, and any other small buildings which are exceptionally subject to loss by fire. The first cost of a well-constructed concrete building generally will be greater than that of a wood building of the same size, but the concrete will last practically forever, and will seldom need paint or repairs. A fire in such a building can do but slight damage to the building itself, and there is very little likelihood of its spreading to any of the adjoining buildings.

FIRE FIGHTING.

While the easiest way to fight fire is to prevent it, and observance of the points mentioned in the preceding pages will prevent it to a great extent, some provision should be made for promptly extinguishing any fire which may start in spite of precautions. Nearly all farm products and equipment are combustible and are contained in frame buildings. It is almost a necessity that fire be maintained in some of these buildings during a part of the year, and carried into most of the remaining ones occasionally. In a large percentage of

cases someone is in the building when a fire starts. Thus all buildings should be equipped with some kind of fire-extinguishing apparatus, for all fires are of the same size at the start, and most of them are discovered in time to be put out by a single person if the means are at hand. The apparatus should be located in convenient places known to everyone who frequents the building, and should always be kept ready for instant use, and a ladder long enough to reach the roof should be kept in a handy place if there is no other way to get to the roof quickly. Fire insurance companies give special rates to all property owners in cities who equip their premises with satisfactory fire-extinguishing apparatus, and many companies would doubtless be willing to make similar arrangements in the case of farm buildings so equipped.

WATER.

A pail of water is the oldest, simplest, and also the cheapest fire extinguisher. Fire buckets are found in all places of business and manufacturing plants, and there is no reason why pails of water to be used for no other purpose should not be found in every farm building. They are so effective in extinguishing small fires that insurance companies grant lower rates to many merchants and manufacturers who follow this practice, yet there are very few farm buildings where buckets of water are kept in fixed places to be used for fire only, although it would cost but little and require only a slight amount of work to maintain such protection. Most people rely on pumps to furnish water when a fire breaks out; but the well may be at a considerable distance from the fire, and the delay caused by having to hunt buckets, pump the water, and carry it to the fire may be sufficient to permit the flames to spread beyond control. The usefulness of the fire bucket depends upon its being instantly available. To insure this the water should never under any circumstances be used for other purposes, the buckets should be inspected and refilled at regular intervals, measures should be taken to prevent the water from freezing in cold weather, and the buckets should always be kept at certain fixed places. They should be set on shelves or hung on brackets, and not put on the floor where they may be upset or have other things piled on them. If they are provided with covers the water will not evaporate so quickly as from open buckets, nor will it get full of dust and dirt and develop an offensive smell. The water can be kept from freezing in all except very low temperatures by adding two pounds of common salt to each bucketful. In some cases calcium chloride may be preferable to common salt, as it will not cause deterioration of a metal bucket. If the buckets are specially painted or labeled they will be more conspicuous and there will be less likelihood of their being used by careless persons for other purposes than fire fighting.

In buildings which are at a considerable distance from a source of water it is advisable to install a cask or tub filled with water to reinforce the buckets. On many farms there are plenty of vessels suitable for the use mentioned which could be placed around the premises without expense and in only a few minutes' time.

A little practice in throwing water may be a very useful thing. A single bucketful if applied correctly may do more toward extinguishing a fire than a barrelful thrown awkwardly. The knack of throwing a broad sheet of water in a semicircular sweep is easily learned and is useful on a spreading fire on the floor. Water dipped out with the hands or a broom and sprinkled on the fire is often more effective than that thrown at the fire from a distance. The water should be applied to the base of the fire and not up in the flames and smoke.

The principal objections to water buckets are that they are unsightly if placed inside the house, are likely to be used for something other than fire, hold comparatively little water at the best, require a certain amount of attention if they are always to be full and ready for instant action, and are of little use on fires in oils and volatile liquids, such as gasoline or kerosene. However, they are the best form of fire protection the farmer can get for the money.

Water-supply systems which furnish water under pressure afford excellent fire-fighting facilities if the necessary hose and connections are provided and kept ready for use in emergency. This fact should be taken into account when considering the cost and advisability of installing such a system. Existing plants of this kind can be altered at small cost so as to provide additional fire-fighting facilities.

CHEMICAL EXTINGUISHERS HAVE MANY ADVANTAGES.

The chemical extinguisher has come into general use in recent years, and it has many advantages over water buckets. Since it can be used for nothing else, it is always sure to be in its place and ready when needed. Furthermore, some types of chemical extinguishers are effective in subduing fires among oils, where water is of no value.

The chemical extinguisher in most general use is the soda-acid variety with a capacity of about $2\frac{1}{2}$ gallons of water. More than 20 firms manufacture approved apparatus of this type. These apparatus generally cost from \$7 to \$12. Their construction is simple and they are easy to operate. An extinguisher of this kind consists of a closed metal tank strong enough to withstand considerable pressure and partly filled with a solution of bicarbonate of soda (baking soda). In the top of the tank is a bottle of sulphuric acid, which is closed by a loose-fitting lead stopper. The only outlet to the tank is a rubber hose equipped with a nozzle. To operate the extinguisher the tank is simply turned bottom upward. This

permits the sulphuric acid to escape gradually around the stopper, which drops out against the top of the tank. The acid comes in contact with the soda solution; carbonic-acid gas, which produces great pressure, is generated, and the water and gas are forced out through the hose and nozzle. Both the water and the gas, which is noncombustible, assist in extinguishing the fire. The apparatus in most general use is about 2 feet in height and is intended to be hung on the wall. The chemical extinguishers which are approved by insurance companies are tested to withstand a pressure of 350 pounds. They are designed to hold $2\frac{1}{2}$ gallons of water mixed with $1\frac{1}{2}$ pounds of bicarbonate of soda, and the bottle holds 4 ounces of acid. The stream which is thrown at the blaze has a range of from 25 to 40 feet and will flow for about one minute. If applied correctly the contents of a $2\frac{1}{2}$ -gallon extinguisher are equivalent to many times that volume of water thrown from pails. These extinguishers can be refilled and used many times. When not in use they require no attention, except that they should be discharged and thoroughly cleaned and refilled once a year, and must be protected from freezing. Specific directions for operating and refilling are printed upon a plate attached to the tank of all approved makes. The chemicals for refilling can be purchased at any drug store for half a dollar or less, and a supply should always be kept on hand. These extinguishers are useful on any fire which water will quench, but are not very effective in gasoline or kerosene fires.

Another type of chemical extinguisher consists of a quart of fluid in a double-action metal syringe, the handle of which is worked back and forth to eject the liquid. The chemical agent which smothers the fire is carbon tetrachloride. This is a liquid which does not freeze until a temperature of 50° F. below zero is reached. When the temperature rises to about 200° F., very nearly the temperature required to boil water, it turns into a heavy vapor, which covers and smothers the fire. It is especially useful in extinguishing fires on which water or carbonic-acid-gas extinguishers have little effect. Burning oil, gasoline, kerosene, or acetylene generally can be subdued with it and it is especially valuable in the garage. It is not poisonous and evaporates quickly without damaging articles on which it is thrown. However, a large quantity of the vapor may cause suffocation of persons remaining in a closed room with it. Caution in its use is therefore necessary. One-quart extinguishers of this type can be purchased for about \$8 and liquid for refilling them costs about \$1.50. These extinguishers are approved by all fire insurance companies.

The Department of Agriculture in the course of an investigation of dust explosions in grain separators developed an automatic fire extinguisher intended to afford protection irrespective of the cause

of the fire or explosion. It is described in Department Bulletin 379, on page 22 of which is the suggestion that when not in use on the separator this device can be mounted on running gears and used for general fire protection about the farm.

DRY-POWDER EXTINGUISHERS.

There are on the market many makes of extinguishers consisting of sheet-metal tubes filled with powder, which decomposes when thrown on a hot fire and produces a noncombustible gas which smothers the flames by shutting off the oxygen. The manufacturers recommend them for fires in confined spaces, and especially for chimney fires, and in many cases they have been effective in curbing gasoline and oil fires. The ingredients are coarsely powdered, decompose easily without explosion, and give off a strong odor and much smoke. They appeal to many on account of their low cost when compared with other extinguishers, but their value has been greatly exaggerated and most experts in fire protection do not recommend them. Their use in attempts to extinguish fires on which they can be of little help is likely to cause disastrous delay in the use of water or other approved agents.

"HAND GRENADE" EXTINGUISHERS.

Glass bottles of spherical form containing fire-extinguishing liquids of various kinds are sold in many places. The bottle is to be thrown on the fire and broken and the liquid thus liberated. When heated the liquid gives off a noncombustible gas, and in some cases is supposed to encrust the burning material with a fireproof chemical and thus smother the fire. These grenades are not as dependable as other forms of extinguishers. Their capacity is small, it is difficult to throw one of them to the base of the fire, and sometimes they do not break when thrown. As in the case of the tubes of dry powder, they are likely to cause serious delay in the use of better extinguishing agents.

SAND FOR EXTINGUISHING OIL FIRES.

Sand is a very good extinguisher of burning oil in case of a small fire on a floor or in a shallow container. Water is of little value in fires of this kind unless a large quantity of it is at hand, for if applied in small quantity it will generally serve only to scatter the burning material and make the fire more difficult to control. Sand is not very efficient if the fire is in a tank or bucket, since the sand sinks to the bottom of the vessel and allows the fire to keep on burning. Pails of sand are recommended in many ordinances applying to garages, and, when all things are considered, are probably superior to anything except good chemical extinguishers. Sand is

very heavy, and the bucket containing it should be small or else only partly filled, so that it will not be too heavy to carry. A light, long-handled scoop or dipper might be useful for applying the sand to the fire.

SAWDUST FOR EXTINGUISHING OIL FIRES.

Sawdust is recognized as a fairly efficient extinguisher of oil fires, especially if the oil is in a deep container. Sawdust poured on burning oil floats and smothers the fire by shutting off the oxygen. Sawdust itself is somewhat inflammable, and if it is to be used care must be taken that it does not become oil-soaked and as hazardous as the oil itself. If two or three pounds of common soda are mixed with a bucketful of sawdust, it is almost entirely incombustible; and if the fire on which it is thrown is very hot the soda will give off a gas which aids in smothering the flames.

PUBLICATIONS OF THE UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE RELATING TO THE SUBJECT OF THIS BULLETIN.

Modern Methods of Protection Against Lightning. (Farmers' Bulletin No. 842.)
Dust Explosions and Fires in Grain Separators in the Pacific Northwest.

(Department Bulletin No. 379.)

Organization and Management of a Farmers' Mutual Fire Insurance Company.

(Department Bulletin No. 530.)

Farmers' Mutual Fire Insurance. (Yearbook Separate No. 697.)

Lightning and the Electricity of the Air. (Weather Bureau Bulletin No. 26.)

Recent Practice in the Erection of Lightning Conductors. (Weather Bureau Bulletin No. 37.)

SOME OTHER PUBLICATIONS RELATING TO FIRE PREVENTION AND PROTECTION.

Day, W. H. Lightning Rods. Ontario Department of Agriculture, Bulletin 220. 38 pp. Toronto. 1914.

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